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On Evening Education in Great Britain

By K. E. Norris

One cannot become an authority on English education in thirteen days — although less than a fortnight apparently is required to make an expert out of some more highly gifted political observers. Even with a background of fairly extensive reading on the subject, a Canadian visitor is apt to find the English educational system (if indeed it can be called a system) rather difficult to grasp and almost impossible to translate into Canadian terms.

In fact, the structure of education in Great Britain seems to be as formless, yet as effective and fundamentally democratic, as is its governmental system or its constitution. It just grew — but it grew in such a way that each local school authority is still a power unto itself, and many important things are taken for granted which, on the American continent, would be formalized in a written code or "policy." The fact that the written "policy" usually requires strict enforcement and that what is taken for granted usually happens automatically, since no one would think of doing anything else, provides an interesting contrast between the American and the English temperaments.

So, one is struck rather unexpectedly by the flexibility of British education, its adaptation to local conditions and the unwillingness of the central authority to usurp the responsibility of the local education authorities.

This can be both positive and negative. For example — the present Government as well as the government which preceded it in Great Britain, came out strongly in favour of the type of local institution to be known as "county colleges." The machinery for organization and for "grants-in-aid" was set up, but as yet there are no county colleges. Why? Because none have grown. It would seem to have been an easy thing for a central educational authority, which had both the power and the money to establish a few such institutions if only as an experiment. But, no. They must evolve locally, and there are some in process of development now which eventually **may** become county colleges of the type visualized.

The writer visited one of these, an adult short-term residential college conducted by the English National Council of Y.M.C.A.'s in rural Kent. It is of a type apparently growing more numerous in England, providing a blend of adult education with the characteristically English faith in the educative value of a residential student body. To this College, which has a resident principal and staff, come succes-

sive groups of adults for short-term courses or "institutes" of varying lengths from three days to several weeks. Each group establishes its own programme of study, based on its own needs and desires, and may even bring its own teachers to supplement the resident staff. In Canadian terms, the English, short-term, adult, residential colleges are less like the familiar university summer school than they are like the Institute of Public Affairs sponsored at the Y.M.C.A.'s Lake Couchiching each August.

To an extent which could not quite have been foreseen from previous reading, the writer found evening education to be an accepted and long-established part of the British system. The long and influential record of the Worker's Education Association and the University tutorial classes was, of course, well-known, but the writer did not expect to find the variety and number of institutions dedicated entirely to evening education or the casual way in which the validity of their work was recognized by educationists in general.

Such standing could not have come except through long decades of sound performance, and it is revealing to learn that some institutions in the London area, which are now offering evening education to recognized degrees and national technical certificates, have been operating for more than a hundred years.

Of course, London is not England, and one is surprised in turn to discover that although evening education to professional certificates in engineering and commerce is freely available in most large English cities, there are not many places outside the London area where an evening student may qualify for a bachelor's degree. There are a few, but the scarcity is all the more difficult to understand when one remembers that several of the English "provincial" universities grew directly out of evening university tutorial classes — much as Sir George Williams College grew out of its evening division.

But London swarms with evening students. From the famous London School of Economics, now part of the University of London, to the public secondary and elementary schools, those in charge of education seem constantly aware of the need of the employed person for education, and his right to obtain it if he has the ability and the interest. The London County Council has a complete department for the purpose of organizing and promoting evening classes on all sorts of technical, practical or cultural subjects, from Furniture Warehousing and Removing to Fine Arts, from Ladies' Millinery to Metallurgy, and from Glovemaking to Greek.

A visitor from Sir George Williams College finds his spiritual home-away-from-home in Birkbeck College, now one of the major units of the University of London, established and conducted for the evening student, 128 years old, and offering work leading to Bachelor's degrees in Arts and Science. The curriculum of Birkbeck College does not include commerce subjects or the more "practical" type of course. Its degree-requirements specify depth and intensity of scholarship

rather than breadth and general education; but its aggressive faith in the evening student and the apparent relationship of staff and student body, a faith and relationship which extends from the receptionist to the Principal, reminds one so forcibly of Sir George Williams College, that one forgets to notice the difference.

The more practical aspects of higher education in the evening, those which one might call the college or university level in Canada, are offered in the institutions known as "Polytechnics" or technical colleges. These include training for the widely recognized national certificates in engineering, accountancy and thirty or forty other similar professions. which in Canada would involve a university course of training. In England one not only obtains a degree of Bachelor of Science (Engineering or otherwise) — one qualifies for a national certificate in engineering, and may do so by means of either day or evening study. These polytechnics are numerous. They exist in every major city and provide facilities for every ambitious student to prepare himself for a technical vocation or profession by means of evening study.

The remarkable thing to us is the complete cleavage between the practical, vocational education of the polytechnics and the more general type of education. The polytechnics are not in the least concerned with "cultural" subjects or general education; but, come to think of it, neither are the engineering faculties or most schools of commerce on this continent.

Perhaps one should be satisfied with one miracle without asking for a second, and be glad of the amazing frequency of the evening polytechnic, providing as it does an opportunity for the evening student which is equivalent in almost every way to that enjoyed by the day candidate for a higher technical or commercial profession.

However, it is true that English educators at the present time are debating the case for a "technical university" and the possibility of pulling the technical college within the more generally educative orbit of the university. In this process, many important things are being said regarding the desirability of making all vocational education truly (or generally) educative — a theory of education which Sir George Williams College has championed for many years.

Statistics show that there are many fewer students attending the colleges and universities of England in proportion to the population than there are in Canada or in the United States. It is reassuring for a visitor to discover that the great prevalence and widespread acceptance of evening education in the "old country" go a long way toward removing this discrepancy. The role of evening education as the "equalizer of opportunity" has never been played fully in any country, but its exponents have a good deal to learn from Great Britain.

Lewis Clark Haskell

On November 8, 1950, the College lost one of its most devoted leaders. Mr. Haskell was one of the original members of the Board of Governors and its Chairman from 1942 to 1947. In this capacity he presided at a series of convocations and other important meetings during the period of the College's greatest growth and development. He was also Chairman of the Library Committee of the Board during the first major development of the library towards its present proportions.

Lewis Haskell was an American by birth and was a graduate of Colgate University. He came to Montreal as a young man and entered wholeheartedly into the business life of this community. However, he always found time for a full measure of devotion to good works. His contribution to religious, social and educational life was positive and continuous.

To his friends, Mr. Haskell was perhaps best known for his unobtrusive acts of kindliness and friendship. He had, as well, however, a deep sense of duty. The motto, which hung on his office wall, was to the effect that, "It is not doing what one likes to do but liking what one has to do that makes life blessed."

The College, and those who benefit from it, owe a great deal to the faithful few who believed in its mission and its place in the community during its early development as an institution of higher education. Among the chief of these was Lewis Clark Haskell. The Faculty extend to his family and friends their sympathy and deep sense of loss in his passing from us.

Gerald Walker Birks

The name of the first petitioner in the act of incorporation of Sir George Williams College is that of Gerald W. Birks. As President of the Montreal Y. M. C. A. for twenty-eight years and a member of the Board of Governors of the College since its inception, his influence in our councils was constant. Always kindly, tolerant and broad of vision, his very presence in a meeting seemed to raise the discussion to higher levels. While often concerned with great issues he had a real regard for the individual. Hundreds of young men who lived with him and served under him on the voyages of his yacht, the "Nomad," or who profited by his generous hospitality during the first World War at his home at "17 Gloucester" in London would testify to this fact.

To the select but varied group who sailed wtih him, Gerald Birks was known as "the Captain." To his Y. M. C. A. associates, and a much wider circle, he was known as "the Colonel." It is safe to say that never were these titles applied with a more subtle combination of respect and affection.

During the first World War the Canadian Y. M. C. A. was organized as a military unit. Lt-Col. G. W. Birks was its Commanding Officer. With tact and tolerance he carried the responsibilities of this difficult task in such a way that his award of the O. B. E. at its conclusion was universally regarded as never having been more deserved.

Now that he has passed beyond the sight of men we shall miss his generous moral and material support; but most of all perhaps, his constant and optimistic encouragement. We are, however, surrounded by reminders of him, not the least of which is our beautiful "Captain's Chapel" which was given in his name as a memorial to a noble life.

International Fish

By J. M. Honeyman

Fish can be quite a problem. In Lake Champlain there are those golden fish, doré is the French name for them. In the latter part of March and in April, before the ice melts, they move into shallow water to spawn. A critical time for the whole doré race! Now they are gathered together in large numbers and instruments more efficient than hook and line may be used for their destruction; most efficient of all, the seine. To prevent slaughter at spawning time a closed season is invoked. But the international boundary line and some ancient history combine to overcome this simple remedy.

To Canadians Lake Champlain is blind, shallow Missisquoi Bay with no outlet and narrowly joined to the American lake. The forty-fifth parallel gave the Americans the larger share of this fine body of water, as we received the greater part of Lake Memphremagog a few miles eastward — and there, by the way, is another international fisheries problem! Nevertheless, the doré like our bay, and in the weeks before spawning time stream northward in great numbers through its narrow entrance and across the international boundary. After laying their eggs they make their way back, for the warm, weedy waters, are not attractive to them in summer.

Our fisherman think it is fair to sample these fine fish while they are in our country; a reasonable return for providing them with spawning grounds. For many years a small number of fishermen, proprietors of land formerly part of the seigneuries of Foucault and St. Armand which bordered Missisquoi Bay, have had the right to seine for these fish. But what controversies thus arise! The destruction of these spawning fish will endanger the whole population of the species in Lake Champlain, say some authorities. But this is not the only spawning ground in the lake, say others. The seines eliminate from the lake large numbers of undesirable fish such as suckers and carp. That this may increase the food supply of the lake and improve conditions generally is another opinion. The biological answers to these and other interesting questions can be obtained only on the basis of expensive scientific inquiry.

Interesting also is the method the fishermen have devised for seining. This must be done under the ice before the beginning of the closed season. The seine used is about six hundred feet long, ten feet deep and is provided with floats and sinkers. The first problem is to get this awkward net underneath the ice. It is solved by making a row of holes in the ice about thirty feet apart and pushing a long board beneath it from one hole to another. To the board is attached a rope and to the rope the end of the seine. So eventually the seine

hangs by its floats under the ice and reaches to the bottom of the shallow bay. From each end of the seine stretches a row of ice holes gradually converging on a point about one thousand feet distant and near shore. By an ingenious arrangement of ropes connecting these holes the seine is dragged beneath the ice and its two ends emerge together from a large opening at the point of convergence. The centre of the seine meanwhile has become slack and been converted into an enormous bag within which are trapped the fish found in its path. This sack is lifted throgh the opening in the ice and the fish removed. Then the seine is reset in the offshore position . All this can be cold exercise on a harsh day in March.

For the fishermen, more than the money involved — and no fortunes are made here — there is the hopeful fascination that some draw of the seine may be filled with a record catch. The comparative size and value of catches and the probable effects of weather and gear are subjects of never-ending argument.

Lake Memphremagog is a smaller twin of Lake Champlain. Three-quarters of its area lies in Canada, only the shallow southern end in Vermont. The problem fish here is the Atlantic salmon. This coastal native reached our inland lake in the distant past by some unknown route. The present problem is to keep it there. Many individuals follow the practice of their race and move downstream, over the great power dams of the St. Francis river to the St. Lawrence and thence to the sea. They are lost to the salmon population of the lake. There is no return past those unnatural waterfalls. But some are more landlocked. They spend their summers in the cool, deep Canadian waters and every spring swim up the American inlets to spawn. So here we must rely on American guardianship of the spawning salmon as they appeal for our protective care of the golden fish of Lake Champlain.

Memory, The Crux of Mental Life

J. W. Bridges

Is it not rather strange, the attitude of many people to memory? They so readily admit inferiority in this respect, whereas they do not like to think themselves below par in any other mental function. The merest suggestion of low intelligence, poor reasoning power, or deficient sense of humour is likely to arouse their immediate resentment. But sometimes they seem almost to boast of poor memory.

This is especially peculiar and puzzling, since memory is undoubtedly the crux of mental life and the central problem of psychology. Memory in the widest sense includes a number of processes. Something is **impressed** consciously or unconsciously upon the organism through the senses and by learning. In some way not yet clearly understood it is **retained** in mind or brain; and later it may be recalled, that is, **reproduced** and **recognized** as belonging to one's past experience. Some of the processes may occur without the others. For instance, that which is impressed and conserved may influence thought and behaviour without conscious recall, and reproduction does not necessarily involve recognition.

Memory is the basis of all other mental processes. To begin with it is necessary to perception. The things we see and hear would have no meaning without associations from the past. Thus we could not recognize our friends, and we could not understand their language. Imagination would be impossible, for it is essentially the reproduction of previous experience. Even creative imagination and thought involve in addition to memory only the ability to unite the elements of experience into new combinations. The person who first thought of a mermaid could not have done so if he had not already seen a woman and a fish. ....

Even reason, so frequently contrasted with memory, is in reality based thereon. It is obvious that the facts, the material with which we reason, must be derived from experience and learning. It is, perhaps, less clear that the very principles of reasoning themselves must be learned and remembered. Thus we must study logic to learn the correct procedures for drawing valid conclusions from the premises or the facts. We must learn to avoid the common fallacies. And in scientific research we have to learn a system of methods, procedures and controls in order to avoid the pitfalls into which we may easily fall. Other ordinary modes of thinking are learned by unconscious absorption of the common cultural norms and patterns of mental activity.

Further, it is only because of memory that "we look before and after and pine for what is not," for anticipation is an imaginative construction based on experience and projected into the future. Indeed, if it were not for memory we could not know ourselves from day to day as the same person through all the changes of time and place. Just imagine waking in the morning in a state of amnesia, that is, loss of memory You would not know who you are, where you are, or whether you are the same person that lay down in that bed the night before. In fact, there would not be any night before. There would be only the immediate present, a succession of unrelated "nows." But you could not even experience them as a succession. Indeed, it's a question whether you could have anything that could legitimately be called experience at all.

To sum up, memory is the crux and core of mental life. Without it there could be no perception of meaningful objects, no imagination, no thought, no reasoning, no hope, no awareness of personal identity from one moment to another. Indeed, consciousness, if it existed at all, would be reduced to the simplest sensations, feelings and impulses. It would be merely a succession of unrelated flashes of experience separated by intervals of mental darkness.

It follows, therefore, that failure or disorder of memory has special significance both for the individual and for society. Everybody knows that we forget many things that actually happened. That is normal. But few realize that we also remember things that never happened. False memory, technically called paramnesia, is almost as common as forgetting. An experiment has often been performed in which a carefully rehearsed incident, such as a quarrel between two students, is arranged to occur as if by accident in a class room. Then without divulging the fictitious nature of the occurrence the instructor requests the class to write down an account of what happened. The reports invariably show the omission of many important details, but they also show the addition of much that never occurred.

A false memory is of course also a memory. The material comes from past experience, perhaps reconstructed in the imagination, but it is misplaced in time or space. For instance, an incident from a book or a creation of fancy may be remembered as occurring to one's self. Then, too, we are never aware of our own false memories. They are as vivid and convincing as real ones. The events are remembered honestly enough, and yet they did not happen.

Thus paramnesia must be distinguished from prevarication. Many people like to fabricate tales about themselves or others for their own glorification or for the entertainment of their friends, but they know the things never happened. They are just plain liars, or amusing story-tellers, whichever you prefer to call them. Sometimes it is difficult to know whether such a tale is a false memory or a lie. I once knew a college professor who told stories of his travels which I knew never occurred; but I was always uncertain whether his memory or his veracity was at fault.

Such extreme cases are more or less abnormal, but others may be definitely pathological. For instance, a man who was in a mental hospital and about the wards all day would, if he were asked what he had been doing, describe in great detail many fictitious experiences. He would tell of having had dinner at a hotel, of going to a ball game, or of taking his wife to the theatre; and he was not lying in the ordinary sense of the term.

Explanations have been suggested. One is that the person remembers what he wished had happened instead of what actually occurred, as in the case of the patient mentioned above. Another is that false memory is related to forgetting. The gaps in memory are filled in with imaginary incidents. This might be called "creative forgetting." Then again, if a person has vivid imagination, he is likely to confuse phantasy, or even dreams, with reality. This accounts for much of the so-called lying of children, which is thus not lying at all but false memory due to mental confusion.

There is a special kind of false memory called an illusion of recognition. A strange person seems familiar, though we cannot definitely place him. We never really met him before, though he may have points of similarity to someone we have met. Or we may go into a strange room, and it seems as if we had been there before. Such an experience can scarcely be taken as a proof that we were there in a previous incarnation. It is more likely just another false memory due to a mental confusion of the new situation with something similar in the past.

We never know how inaccurate our own memory is. The feeling of assurance that our memory is correct is not adequate proof that what we remember actually happened. Confidence is no guarantee of validity. So when we are arguing with conviction that some event occurred as we remember it, we ought to pause to think that perhaps our memory plays us false. At any rate, it may require the support of additional evidence. This may have great importance in considering and evaluating the testimony of witnesses, the reports of events and the spread of rumors. The distortion of stories as they spread from one person to another through a community has often been noted and has been systematically studied by psychologists, who have revealed cretain aspects of the process, such as omission of some details, exaggeration of others, and unification of subject matter — presumably to make it more meaningful. Such changes are usually unintentional and unconscious.

Finally, this emphasis on memory and its aberrations has some implications for education. It has been customary to belittle "memory work" and glorify something called "Thinking." But the latter is obviously based upon memory. One cannot think without something to think about; and, as previously mentioned, even the mode of think-

ing is learned consciously or unconsciously in the cultural setting. So we have magical, deductive, inductive, pragmatic, statistical and other kinds of thinking in accordance with the "cultural compulsives" of the time and place.

However, there are apparently different kinds of learning. "Learning by wholes," as the **Gestalt** psychologists call it, is admittedly better than rote learning, though the difference is probably only one of degree such as the amount and complexity of associative context. The former means learning by understanding, and is basically similar to "apperception" as described by Herbart in the early nineteenth century. Herbart's point was that in education new material should be related to what is already known. Learning by wholes and apperception are forms of learning that assure better memory than mere rote learning. But some of the simpler rote learning is undoubtedly a necessary basis for the development of the more complex forms. So surely education should aim to cultivate whatever potentialities for memory we are fortuniate enough to possess. The average student who hears criticism of the role of memory in education is likely to approve, for to him "less memory work" probably means — indeed in a sense it can only mean — "less work of any kind."

Lint from a Library Duster

L. Fair

"Have you anything on how to train a dog?" "Have you anything on 'Suicide'?" "Where can I find a picture of a hat which could have been worn in Edmonton in 1800?" Questions like these are hurled across the desk at Sir George Williams College as students ride their favorite hobbies under the pretence of writing a "thesis" for English 999. Librarians are apt to become case-hardened, developing a thick shell, off which apparently flippant demands for information bounce back to the student. But who are we to evaluate the importance of any detail to an individual student — perhaps his future academic career depends on finding a correct answer before he sits down to write a "supp." ten minutes hence.

Or perhaps social status hangs in the balance.

The young men who ask "Where can I find a book on etiquette?" are usually surprised by the counter question "Are you going to be best man at a wedding?" An affirmative answer is to be expected and they explore the punctilios of toasts and confetti quite happily among Emily Post's butlers. So far, all bridesmaids seem to have been able to solve their own problems.

Running a library is somewhat like running a house. The food, all nourishment for the intellect in the case of the library, must be selected, prepared for consumption and made available, while still fresh, in a way to whet the appetite of the potential consumer.

There must be a proper balance maintained between the sweets, (or fiction) suitable for recreation, the plain, wholesome staples (or textbooks) and the sparkling headiness, or rich pluminess of the occasional Great Book.

To the uninitiated, the time which elapses between the ordering of a book and the day on which it is available to the avid students, is quite inexplicable. It is obvious that no pressure cooking is in use at this stage.

Briefly, let it be said that there are many steps in the process. First, the order card has to be checked so that the same book is not ordered half-a-dozen times by various enthusiasts. Then the order goes to the publisher, or his agent, where it waits its turn for attention. After being received by the library, each book has to be catalogued, accessioned, pasted, checked and rechecked before it is ready for circulation.

Yet with all due care, the most amazing things happen, due no doubt to the gremlins who, although unpaid, seemingly put in many hours of overtime.

Here at Sir George we operate on a system akin to a cafeteria. The student himself selects his own books from a wide variety arranged on easily accessible shelves. There is no denying that the open shelf system raises problems. The greatest disadvantage is that inevitably some books disappear. It is easy to become interested in a book, tuck it under one's arm and walk out of the room without thinking to have one's card stamped at the desk. We would like to believe that our students are merely absent-minded.

But when we lose three copies of a psychology book within a matter of weeks we do get a trifle disheartened. Apparently it is a first-rate course in psychology which relieves the student of each and every inhibition but we wish that a post-requisite might be a stimulating course in sociology to revive an inert social conscience.

However, we are convinced that the advantages of the open-shelf system far out-weigh its rather obvious disadvantages. Many of our students come from homes where books are not considered to be an essential or even a desirable part of the furnishings. To these students, browsing is a revelation. No one can tell what Arcady they may enter through the fortunate opening of some enchanting volume picked at random.

We try to guard the reputation of our reading room as a quiet haven for study but the pressure of extra-curricular activities makes this sometimes rather difficult. Our more ardent and sibilant courtships have to be carried on elsewhere. It is also suggested that the fate of nations be decided in The Trough and, debate being thirsty work, the protagonists of clashing ideologies are usually easily persuaded to adjourn there. As the number of insoluble problems increases towards exam time, we threaten loquacious students that they are likely candidates for the Grand Prize for Public Speaking in the Library.

Nearly all our 4,000 students are aware of the value of education and are going all out for a degree, or at least for a pass in their chosen subject. Our job is to help them find the material needed with a minimum of unproductive fumbling. We try also to indicate some rewarding by-paths so that a student surfeited on textbooks which are no-more-than-adequate, may not miss entirely the fresh flowers of the literary fields nor all the hardy perennials among the classiscs.

As for the professors — the lambs! They are indeed at the mercy of the librarians. A slighting book, a harsh over-tone and we can take our revenge by putting some invaluable work "On Reference" for another professor's course. Or just lose the book.

Don't worry: we are far too busy to waste time on fancied frustrations when all our energies are taken up by keeping things going reasonably straight.

Our proudest moments are when some of our graduates, now taking courses at other universities, come back, just because they like the library at Sir George.

In conclusion may we offer our best wish for the New Year: May the Wanted Book always be In.

Canada's Expanding Economy

Excerpts from a public Lecture on the Future of the Canadian Economy

By Arthur Lermer

At the turn of the century the prophetic words of Sir Wilfrid Laurier proclaiming the Twentieth Century as the century of Canada raised great hopes mingled with a deep sense of skepticism. For in the past, waves of optimism have seldom materialized. Heartbreaking disillusionment troubled so frequently the Canadian community.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier's predictions seemed to share the same fate as those of his predecessors.

Even before the First World War storm clouds appeared on the Canadian economic horizon. Overoptimism caused excess expansion of our railway system exposing the young economy to great hardships. The First World War provided a temporary outlet for our surplus production. As soon as the war came to an end, the trouble signalized in 1913 reappeared, this time magnified and assuming catastrophic proportions. The wave of railway firms' bankruptcies was merely the most conspicuous manifestation of the disease of our economy. The rise of mass production in the United States spelled more trouble for us because it widened the gap between the price levels of industrial goods in both countries, discouraging immigration; or on the contrary, promoting heavy emigration. Our shrinking internal market seemed to be doomed. We depended more than ever on undependable foreign demands for our agricultural output and raw materials.

The frustrated community witnessed the collapse of the newly established consumers' goods industries encouraged by the war. The breakdown of 1929, followed by the relative collapse of international trade and the profound world-wide agricultural crisis, undermined the very foundations of Confederation, as was marked by the dark and gloomy years of the Thirties.

Then came the Second World War and its economic aftermath. Once again agriculture regained its position and the process of industrialization, accelerated by the war and post-war conditions, set the Canadian economy on the move. The dollar problem robbed us of some of our tranquility. The dwindling European trade caused a great deal of apprehension. But in the very midst of approaching troublesome times, the first extremely rich oil strikes in Alberta were made, heralding the unprecedented upswing of our economy.

Now, three years after, a pipe line feeds the Wisconsin and Great Lakes area. Soon Eastern Canada will enjoy the use of Canadian oil at a much cheaper price than the present. The rapidly rising number of oil wells contributed to the mitigation of our acute United States dollar problem.

The following are some comparative figures pertaining to our oil production:

In 1947.....226 wells
1948.....273 "
1949.....565 "

The estimated number of wells in 1950 is approximately 850, and the estimated total production in 1950 is one billion three hundred million barrels. Our oil refinery capacity grew from 300,000 barrels per day in 1948 to 335,000 in 1949.

The next great discovery of revolutionary proportions was the great and rich iron ore deposits of Ungava. This region, lying on the Quebec-Labrador border area, contains fabulous treasures of that most precious feature of our steel civilization. Recently a company was formed with the capital of $200,000,000 almost entirely raised within the country. By 1953 we shall witness the beginning of the exploitation of that great and promising mining frontier. It is estimated that over 350 million tons of ore will be found in that area. A new 300 mile long railway, that will provide access to the region, is already under construction.

In Chibougamau, Quebec, new rich gold veins were recently explored. A four mile road will be built to open up the area. Uranium was discovered at Portneuf, Quebec. The gigantic "Steep Rock" iron mines in Ontario, so recently developed, already satisfy the bulk of the Canadian demand.

Lead was discovered at the Coronation Gulf; manganese in Labrador; tin and asbestos in Ontario; uranium at Marion Lake, North-West Territories; goldfields in Saskatchewan and Thunder Bay, Ontario; titanium in Quebec; etc. These are merely additions to the already existing and explored resources.

The significance of iron ore lies in its effect on all our industries. Until recent years we had to import ore, and still have to buy foreign steel in spite of the fact that Canada leads the world in the growth of steel output for the past 10 years. Since 1939 our output has more than doubled. If it were not for the lack of coal in our central regions the growth would probably have been much greater.

It is interesting to note that we are leading, or rather, holding a virtual monopoly in the production of nickel and asbestos in the world. We hold the second place in the world's production of aluminium, platinum, and cadmium; the third in lead and zinc; and the fourth in copper and gold.

To summarize: we are facing an unprecedented upswing in Canadian economic development that reaches far beyond the boldest expectations of all the great dreamers of the past.

One is tempted to feel that it is only the beginning of a rising tide which can break all previous records. But how could all this happen? Providence has blessed Canada with these enormous re-

sources, but there is a long road leading from the discovery to the actual exploitation of natural resources. Without the relentless determination of the previous Canadian generations we would have been unable to reach the present level of our economy. Faced with the tremendous direct and indirect pressure coming from the rapidly growing American economy and the relative indifference of British investors to Canada until the turn of the century, the previous generation suffered great hardships, paying a high social cost for the future.

Not until American resources began to decline and world prices to rise have we been able to disperse the myth that the Canadian North is a frozen, useless area. Growing confidence in the potential opportunities provided by that area coincides thus with favourable world markets.

A new frontier, the last frontier on this continent, has opened up its fabulous treasures causing a great transformation of the Canadian economy right before our eyes. The "beaver" has finally reached its destination.

Excited as we may be about the actual and potential growth of our economy it would be foolish to become complacent and overlook the evils that go to make up the other side of the coin. What are they?

Rapid development causes a serious inflationary pressure. Prices tend to rise leaving wages, particularly salaries, behind. Consequently, while the resources of the whole country grow, the standard of living of white collar workers, old age pensioners, and fixed income groups is liable to suffer a setback. Another evil is the inflationary pressure created by foreign capital that will, in the long run, reap the dividends and thus drain hard money from our economy. Inflationary pressure may thus depress our standard of living while profits will rise. This in turn will discourage immigration and stimulate the exodus from the country. As a result we will face a declining internal market or, to say the least, its growth will be retarded. An inevitable catastrophe (similar to that of the thirties) will then be imminent. There is also a danger that measures such as the recent increase in the sales tax on gasoline in Quebec, for the purpose of covering the expenses of building roads, will impose a heavy burden upon our generation for the benefit of the future which will have its adverse impact through the population effect in the same way as described above.

While we are entitled to rejoice over the splendid development of our dynamic economy we should not overlook the painful evils that are liable to destroy the long run advantages of growth. The urgent present need for war preparation aggravates the inflationary pressure adding new fuel to the fire.

The only solution seems to lie in an appropriate economic policy of governments on all levels. Prejudices must be brushed aside (as much as possible) in order to turn the great economic revolution of our country into a blessing for the whole of society and above all for the future of the Canadian Economy.

A Suggestion for University Teaching

By J. R. Ufford

Teaching in universities in the present day is done in a number of ways which are probably combinations of two different techniques: the lecture system, which is the common method used in Canada and the United States, and the tutorial system which is the method of the older English universities. Both of these have had their share of criticism and praise. The purpose of this paper is to examine these ways of teaching, to evaluate their adventages and limitations, and if possible, to fuse them into a working technique which would include some of the advantages of both.

The lecture system is well known so that no elaboration of the method is required. However, in order to compare the two systems it is necessary to outline some of the advantages and disadvantages of lecturing. The opponents of the method say that it is a mass production method and, as such, it is out of place in a university which should aim at excellence. The system's proponents argue that this method is the only one possible with large classes. The lecture system tends to be impersonal but less so than a book because the teacher and pupil have at least a chance of meeting. The champions of lectures point out that students are exposed to the stimulus of a great teacher and that more pupils are able to hear such learned men; but, counter the others, how many great teachers are there? All university graduates can remember being exposed to bad lecturers: those who were inaudible; those who were ill-prepared for their lectures and those who were audible but were unable to say two or three words without interjecting "and" or "er." In passing, it might be mentioned that a unique step has been taken in Canada on this very important phase of university teaching. The National Conference of Canadian Universities sponsored an experimental summer school at the Royal Military College in Kingston during the month of June of this year. Just such defects and mannerisms were discussed and practical results in eliminating them were achieved.

The lecture system does not exercise the student's mind. In the desperate attempt to take notes on what the lecturer is saying the student does not think about what is being said. The thinking is put off until to-morrow and all too often "tomorrow never comes." Lectures could be duplicated and distributed to the students; this amounts to giving the student a textbook and no lectures should consist of a mere recitation of a text. Students very often get the idea that lecures will supply all the needed material and make no attempt to do any work on their courses other than to read their notes. This will lead to

memorizing and not to establishing a set of values for future judgments. Lecturers, however, are not necessarily passive; if the speaker watches the faces of his audience he can judge what effect he is having. Lecturers do have the advantage of being able to keep pace with a growing subject where books become outdated rather quickly.

The above covers some of the arguments for and against the lecture system and whether you agree with them or not it will be recognized that each side has its arguments.

The second system of teaching is the tutorial system. Briefly, it works as follows: each student spends an hour or so per week, individually, with his tutor; during this period the student reads a prepared essay which the tutor then criticizes for both content and presentation of material; further discussion on the material then ensues and the tutor makes suggesions for further reading on the subject; the session ends with the assignment of a new topic for the following week.

Those who favour this system point out that there is a personal contact between student and teacher and that the pace of instruction can be varied to meet the capabilities of the student. The tutor, besides having a direct influence on the student, may also by his personal manner and interests, be able to impart something of himself to the student thus broadening the student's outlook and increasing his education.

The opponents of the system point out that the student is exposed to the influence of one person only who may not always be competent or even interested. A very large staff is needed with a consequently large budget being required to pay the staff. The time consumed is also very great, and a man who is a scholar finds no time for scholarly work when he is involved in tutorial work.

Both systems have their uses and, of course, are necessary. To attempt to teach a course in which two hundred students are registered by anything other than the lecture sysem would be hopeless. On the other hand, lecturing to a class of five or six students in an honour course is foolish. However, for the class containing twenty or thirty students too many lectures are given and the students have too little time for reading and discussion. Perhaps, for such classes, a system embodying some advantages of the lecture and tutorial systems might be tried.

One or two lectures might be given to the class as a group per week. The lectures would then not attempt to "cover the course" but merely touch upon the highlights. For the remainder of the lecture hours scheduled in the week the class could be broken down into units as small as are economically feasible. A "tutor" one of whom

would be the instructor in charge of the class, could be placed in charge of each unit. During these latter sessions, the material from lectures could be discussed, if necessary; assigned readings could be discussed and short essays could be prepared by the students, read and discussed by the group at large. From time to time, but not too quickly, the groups could change "tutors."

This system has a number of advantages and probably disadvantages also. By rotation of "tutors" the students are exposed to the influence of more than one person. These people could be used to evaluate the student at the end of a year instead of relying too heavily upon the results of written examinations. Having more than one person to do this would do away to a great extent with prejudice. With fewer lectures being given, students will realize that material, other than that presented during lectures is necssary for the course, thus they are required to do some probing on their own. Discussions on prepared reading and the preparation of essays should arouse the intellectual curiosity of the student and start him on the road to thinking for himself.

Book Review

"Rehearsal for Destruction: a Study of Political Anti-Semitism in Imperial Germany." By Paul W. Massing

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949. Pp. xviii + 330.

This is one of a series of "Studies in Prejudice" edited by Max Horkheimer and Samuel H. Flowerman, under the sponsorship of the American Jewish Committee. It deals with the period 1870-1914 in Germany, describing the relationships between political movements and personalities, and the growth of anti-Semitic sentiment in that country.

The text itself consist of four parts: 1) Anti-Semitism in Bismarck's Reich; 2) Racial Anti-Semitism; 3) Anti-Semitism and Imperialism (1895-1914); 4) Socialist Labor and Anti-Semitism (1863-1914).

Under these headings Massing deals with "the historical forerunners of Nazi anti-Semitism in imperial Germany." There is a dispassionate presentation and analysis of economic and demographic facts, of political events and personalities. References and documents at the end of the work include excerpts from Reichstag speeches and quotations from books and journals of the period.

Briefly, the book describes the ascendancy of anti-Semitism between 1870 and 1890 under the leadership of persons like Wilhelm Marr, Otto Glagau, and Adolf Stocker; its temporary decline between 1886 and 1890; its resurgence under Stocker and Herman Ahlwardt after the national election of 1890, and a second decline in its mass appeal from 1895 to the first World War. The reappearance of virulent anti-Semitism in Germany after World War I is not dealt with.

Much attention is paid to the activities of one man who was a Protestant parson at the time of Bismarck's Chancellorship. Born into a lower middle class family, Stocker became chaplain of the Imperial Court, organized the Christian Social Workers' Party (which later became the Christian Social Party), and initiated the Berlin Movement. The latter was a "reactionary" enterprise which included well-to-do

conservatives as well as "artisans, clerks, students, petty officials, small business men and other members of the Mittelstand . . . ."

Stocker's fortunes prospered, with some slight variations, for 20 years; and in this period anti-Semitism as a political organizing device became an integral part of German culture. As Massing puts it: "In the economic transformations and political conflicts of these 20 years anti-Semitism was established as a quasi-automatic group reaction as well as a consciously used instrument of power." (p. 109)

Although the author's interest centers on political parties, he gives a clear picture of the general social conditions which produced them: emergence of large-scale intensive agriculture as opposed to the small-holding subsistence type; rapid development of modern methods of industrial production and organization; increasing importance of the large, impersonal joint-stock type of commercial enterprise; increasing competition from British heavy industry and United States' grain; migrations from Germany to points overseas, and from rural to urban communities within the nation; conflicts of class and caste interests; and increasing importance of those occupational fields which at the time were open to Jews.

Out of the disturbances which attended these socio-economic changes, and out of the individual and collective frustrations thus generated, came a multitude of "definitions of the problem." Political action groups appeared in every stratum of the population; agitators, reformers, and prophets were everywhere. It would be wrong to assume, however, that anti-Semitic feeling represented a blind hitting out at a defenceless collective scapegoat by groups which felt the pinch of rising prices or of receding markets.

Certain groups identified Jews with the strange social forces of a new era — with liberal political philosophies, with free trade, with fortunes made by stock market transactions, and with large-scale organized commerce. Of course, the evidence such people relied on did not in fact represent Jewish monopolies; but in an era of alleged external threats to the security of the German state, it was possible to protest safely against internal conditions and to advocate fundamental social reforms by appealing to in-group sentiment and by labelling distatsteful conditions as the work of non-Germans. Protest programs of this type were promoted even by groups which were prospering and which were not themselves anti-Semitic; these used anti-Jewish creeds and slogans as convenient devices for turning the attention of other groups from the true objectives of their manipulators.

In the introduction to this study, Samuel H. Flowerman says:

> "To me, perhaps the most startling revelation of Massing's work — startling because studies of anti-Semitism in America seem to point to different relationships between anti-Semitism and such background factors as education, geographical location, etc. — is the disclosure that the implacable enemies of Jews were more often urban than rural, and members of higher-educated rather than lower-educated classes. The most virulent anti-Semitism was spread by teachers, students, white collar workers, petty officials, the free professions and all kinds of 'life-reform' movements. In contrast, conservative Junkers, peasants and other rural inhabitants had no special love for Jews but their dislike was circumscribed."

"Rehearsal for Destruction" should be read by psychologists and sociologists, especially by those who believe that the panacea for racialism is a program of nicely arranged intercultural contacts and intellectual enlightenment.

The author is a professor at Rutgers University. He has accomplished a piece of impressive research, and, although his material in this case is organized to suit the conceptions of political scientists rather than those of sociologists, the latter are sure to find this a valuable scientific study of a general social movement.

H. H. POTTER

We Welcome to Our Staff:

Miss Dorothy M. Clark, B.A. (S.G.W.C.)
Acting Supervisor of Freshman English

J. W. Dewdney, B.Sc. (McMaster)
Sessional Lecturer in Physics

Edward McCullough, B.A. (Queen's)
Sessional Lecturer in History

Part-time lecturers are:

K. E. Adams, B.Sc. (S.G.W.C.)	Lecturer in Fine Arts
Lewis Brimacombe, C.A.	Lecturer in Accountancy
D. C. Corbett, B.A., M.A. (Toronto)	Lecturer in Political Science
M. T. Devlen, B.Com. (Melbourne)	Lecturer in Commerce
J. R. Ferguson, B.A., B.Com. (S.G.W.C.)	Lecturer in Commerce
C. R. Graham, B.Sc. (Dalhousie), M.A. (McGill)	Lecturer in Economics
C. L. Hagerman, B.Accy (Sask.)	Lecturer in Accountancy
Lorne D. Hamilton, B.A., M.A. (McGill)	Lecturer in Education
D. W. Johnstone, B.Com. (S.G.W.C.)	Lecturer in Commerce
E. M. Kritz	Lecturer in Economics
G. M. Ling, B.Sc. (London, England), B.A. (McGill), D.T.M. (Bristol)	Lecturer in Chemistry
Joseph Mamelack, B.Sc., M.Sc. (McGill), Ph.D. (Pitt.)	Lecturer in Mathematics
Miss M. C. Masten, B.Sc. (Boston)	Lecturer in English
J. P. Petolas, B.Sc. (S.G.W.C.)	Lecturer in Physics
Thomas Plunkett, B.A. (S.G.W.C.)	Lecturer in English
Miss Ethel E. Schwisberg, B.A. (S.G.W.C.)	Lecturer in Philosophy
Mrs. Joan N. Sears, A.B. (Wis.),M.A. (Rad.)	Lecturer in Fine Arts
Miss M. E. Simpson, B.A. (McGill)	Lecturer in English
M. H. Sinclair, B.Sc. (McGill)	Lecturer in Geography
D. D. Smith, B.A. (S.G.W.C.), M.A. (Minn.)	Lecturer in Psychology
Miss Ruth Smith, B.A. (Queen's, Charlotte, N.C.)	Lecturer in English
Mrs. Rosalie Sofin, B.A., M.A. (McGill)	Lecturer in Psychology

Staff News

Professor D. B. Clarke was elected President of the Psychological Association of the Province of Quebec, and Mr. A. H. McFarlane, Secretary, at a business meeting of the Association at Montreal in April 1950.

Dr. E. C. Woodley and Dr. I. Cooper have been lecturing in History during the absence of Dr. G. O. Rothney who has been in hospital undergoing an operation.

Orson Wheeler, A.R.C.A., S.S.C.A., exhibited at the following: Exhibition of Contemporary Canadian Arts, Art Gallery of Toronto, in March 1950. Exhibition of Canadian Sculpture arranged by Sculptors' Society of Canada, at National Gallery in Ottawa, in March, 1950. Outdoor Exhibition of Sculpture, at Toronto, in August 1950.

Principal K. E. Norris represented the College at the Installation of former class-mate, Dr. A. B. B. Moore as President of Victoria University, Toronto on November 15th, 1950.

On November 24, at the Royal Victoria Hospital, to Elizabeth (née Hillman) wife of Douglas Waterston, a son. Congratulations.

Conference News

Since the last issue members of the staff have attended the following conferences:

New England Association of Chemistry Teachers held at University of Connecticut, during April — S. Madras.

National Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers held at San Francisco, during April — D. B. Clarke.

Conference of Canadian University Business Officers held at Toronto, during April — H. G. Worrell.

Canadian Association of Physicists held at McMaster University, during May — J. T. Macfarlane.

Humanities Research Council held at Kingston, during June — W. R. Fraser, C. W. Thompson.

National Conference of Canadian Universities held at Kingston, during June — D. B. Clarke, H. F. Hall, K. E. Norris, C. W. Thompson.

Canadian Library Association held at Montreal, during June — C. W. Thompson (Chairman of Trustees Section), Miss M. Broadhurst, Miss L. Fair, Mrs. E. Smith.

Canadian Historical Association held at Kingston, during June — G. O. Rothney, H. H. Potter.

Canadian Political Science Association held at Kingston, during the month of June — H. H. Potter, H. F. Quinn.

Canadian University Advisory Services held at Montreal, during June — D. B. Clarke, R. A. Fraser, H. F. Hall, A. H. McFarlane.

National Conference of Canadian Universities' School held at Kingston, during July — J. G. Finnie, Mrs. W. P. Francis, J. R. Ufford.

Ontario Youth Conference held at Lake Couchiching, during July — D. B. Clarke.

World's Alliance of Y.M.C.A.'s — Consultation on Leadership Training held at Nyborg, Denmark, during August — K. E. Norris.

American Psychological Association held at Pennsylvania State College, during September — J. W. Bridges.

American Economic Historian Association held at Vassar, Poughkeepsie, N.Y., during September — A. Lermer.

Association of University Evening Colleges held at Denver, during November — H. F. Hall.

Sir George Williams College

of Montreal Y.M.C.A.

College courses for High School Graduates (men and women) leading to diploma of Associate in Arts, Science, or Commerce and to degree of B.A., B.Sc., or B.Com. Equivalent courses day and evening. Summer evening session June to September.

Sir George Williams Schools

Day and Evening Business Schools, Day and Evening Art Schools, Evening High School.

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